

LEADERSHIP LITERATURE ON ACADEMIC LIBRARIANSHIP:
A Bibliographical Essay

by

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INTRODUCTION

One visits academic libraries today and the most pervasive observation one makes is the fact that most continue to carry out routine library services, with or without leadership. One is apt to wonder whether it really makes any difference what library directors do. Is library management so situational and so constrained by circumstances that the impact which the individual director can have is so minimal?

Librarianship generally has prepared its professionals very well for service responsibilities and technical-bibliographic proficiency, but has done much less well in socializing them to take on leadership roles. So much so that librarians moving into leadership and administration are sometimes surprised by their new responsibilities and the expectations of campus administration.

This paper takes on the position that the value of academic treatises in administrative science or management books cannot be ignored. Academic library managers can have no more powerful weapons in their intellectual armory than mastery of appropriate literature on library leadership and management. Successful administrators absorb the full spectrum of pertinent literature from every source, whenever available.

FOR ROOM USE

Conceptual Framework: A Definition of Leadership

Failed leadership is a recurring theme in library literature. In 1972 Charles Martell asked, "Administration: Which Way---Traditional Practice or Modern Theory?" and concluded that library administration had fallen woefully behind in adopting changes in management theory from the behavioral and organizational sciences. Richard De Gennaro, in his article on "Library Administration and New Management Systems," (1978), echoed in his 1983 article entitled "Theory Vs. Practice in Library Management," pointed out eloquently and forcefully that management theories were failures in practical application, because they did not relate to experience or common sense, and instead diverted attention from the real issues or concerns of library administrators. He arrived at the conclusion that management is an art, not a science, and must be practiced as such. In another article, "Library Managers: Can They Manage? Will They Lead?," Charles R. McClure (1980) argued that library managers failed in providing leadership in the solution of society's informational problems, and in effectively utilizing innovative managerial techniques to administer the library. In a thoroughly researched work analyzing how academic librarians came to occupy their present position in American higher education, Orvin Lee Shiflett (*Origins of American Academic Librarianship*, 1981) portrayed them as still possessing "neither power nor dignity." His conclusion that academic librarianship has failed to establish a consistent form as a profession is significant but unwelcome to many. Arthur M. McAnally and Robert B. Downs (1973) reported on the uncharac-

teristically high turnover rate of library directors in a collaborative study on "The Changing Role of Directors of University Libraries." Their study of 22 directors who had recently left their positions outlined ten environmental factors exerting new or increased pressures on library leadership and recommended solutions and changes.

More than a decade of such analysis and criticism has led to some soul-searching. A broad spectrum of management workshops, courses and programs led to a noticeable increase in the number of librarians with M.L.S. and M.B.A. degrees, but with still very little theory or research into what constitutes effective or ineffective library leadership.

The literature that will be reviewed in this paper reveals that there are at least two significant gaps in the understanding of leadership that contribute to this state of failed leadership. The first is the result of confusion between the concepts of leadership and management. The second has to do with the discrepancy between the rather broad concept of leadership as implied in the articles decrying the perceived shortage of it and the quite narrow definitions applied by theorists and researchers.

There is a tendency in library literature, like management literature, to confuse the modern techniques of effective administration with leadership. For the purpose of this paper, leadership will be defined as one dimension of management, the exercise of social influence. It should be noted, however, that while not directed specifically at influence, such managerial

tasks as planning, allocating resources, disseminating information, monitoring work, etc. affect the ability of library managers to exercise influence.

Most of the time, literature on leadership is focused on the impact of the leader on the subordinates. Henry Mintzberg (1973), who has developed what is undoubtedly the most comprehensive typology of managerial work in his book *The Nature of Managerial Work*, specifically segregates leadership as influence upon subordinates from all other dimensions of management work. The discussion of library leadership, however, does not deal only with the principles of effective supervision. While a great deal of this process is the result of effective relationships with subordinates, a significant set of interactions is also required with the external environment.

The implied objective of leadership, therefore, is to infuse the organization with purpose and direction and to motivate members to achieve the twofold organizational goals: first, to create outputs of goods and services that meet consumer needs, and second, to acquire the resources necessary for the organization to expand and survive. The need and ability of the organization to change are heavily influenced by the constraints and requirements placed upon it by the external environment. Thus, in the context of library leadership, the leader must find a way of exerting influence outward (library director tries to influence university officials to provide resources, to support expansion, and to accept the goals of the library as valid and therefore deserving of support). Within the library, the department head seeks to influence upper management in the same way.

Objectives of the literature survey

This work attempts to answer two key questions about academic library leadership, namely:

1. What is the state of leadership, within and outside of libraries as reflected in the literature of the past fifteen years or so?
2. How does this and other literature of organizational behavior help us to understand the role and function of a library leader?

Several relevant bodies of theory and research will be considered in the subsequent discussion. First, there is the somewhat inconclusive literature surrounding the study of leadership in many aspects. Second, there is the body of theory relating to open systems and the interaction of organizations with their environments. And finally, literature on what constitutes organizational and leader effectiveness will be considered in turn. Before this discussion, it is necessary to review some theories of administration.

SOURCES OF ADMINISTRATIVE THEORY

Like most organizations and professions, librarianship depends on researchers in behavioral science and organizational theory for its paradigms. It is difficult to read any work on library administration without running across the names of famous social scientists.

The virtually hegemonic theories of Abraham Maslow, Douglas McGregor, Rensis Likert, Frederick Herzberg, and others of the behavioralist school have enormously influenced modern administrative styles, just as the models of their predecessors, Frederick Taylor, Max Weber, and Henri Fayol, did in earlier times. Specific critiques of behavioralist theory would include Michael Bottomley (*Personnel Management*, 1983), who was highly critical of the approach; Amitai Etzioni (*Modern Organizations*, 1964), a structuralist and prominent scholar of organizational theory, who viewed some elements as overly simplistic; John W. Hunt (*Managing People At Work: A Manager's Guide to Behaviour in Organizations*, 1979), who suggested that Maslow's hierarchy of needs is popular because it fits in well with organizational life, not because it can be verified empirically; Jerrold Orne ("Future Academic Library Administration: Whither or Whether," 1974), who alleged that the behavioralists make unwarranted assumptions about the uniformity of motivation and other human attributes; Daniel Yankelovich (*New Rules: Searching for Self-Fulfillment in a World Turned Upside Down*, 1981), who viewed the Maslovian outlook as self-centeredness gone wild, the very peak of existentialist theory; James Michalko ("Management by Objectives and the Academic Library: A Critical Overview," 1975), who was severely critical of MBO, suggested that the idea of job satisfaction and job performance are in a cause-effect relationship is unsupported by research; and, Michael Maccoby (*The Gamesman: The New Corporate Leaders*, 1976), who characterized the views of the behavioralists as misleading, mechanistic, excessively bipolar, and failing to deal with the richness and ambiguities of human behavior.

In practical librarianship, the yawning gap between administrative theory and reality remains deep and wide. To bridge the gap, curricula in graduate library schools are slowly and continuously improving. In an important monograph (*Management Theory and Library Education*, 1987), Sajjad ur Rehman analyzed how management theory is communicated in programs of graduate education in librarianship. His study pointed out that research in management is moving toward theories of far greater complexity than those of the behavioralist school. Similar observations were made by Ann Schabas ("Changes in Library Education: The Deans Reply," 1986) and Ruth J. Person ("The Third Culture: Managerial Socialization in the Library Setting," 1985).

LITERATURE ON THE STUDY OF LEADERSHIP IN MANY ASPECTS

There are five broad classifications of the concept of leadership as revealed in leadership studies, namely: (1) leadership as a group function, (2) leadership as an aggregation of personal traits, (3) leadership as effective administration, (4) leadership as managerial style and behavior, and (5) leadership as the exercise of social influence.

Leadership as a group function. The earliest theorists, C.H. Cooley (*Human Nature and the Social Order*, 1902) stated that the "leader is always the nucleus of all social movements." A. Bavelas ("Leadership: Man and Function," 1977) echoed the same concept, describing it as an organizational function wherein the

critical question is how leadership is distributed throughout the organization. To some extent, the concept of distributed leadership is reflected in current writings on participative management. E. P. Hollander ("Competence and Conformity in the Acceptance of Influence," 1961) studied informal groups in an attempt to discover the bases on which leaders were selected by the groups from among their membership. His study of what he calls "emergent leadership" is also used to explain the bases of power of leaders in formal groups.

Personality theories of leadership. These theories developed in the 1920s and focused on the individual characteristics that enabled the leader to exert one-way, downward influence on organizational behavior and outcomes. R.M. Stogdill (*Handbook of Leadership: A survey of Theory and Research*, 1974 and 1981), in his article appearing in the *Journal of Psychology* entitled "Personal Factors Associated with Leadership: a Survey of the Literature," enumerated a typical list of leader traits: sociability, interpersonal skills, social participation, activity or energy, self-confidence, intelligence, dominance, and task knowledge. It is to be noted that charisma, an aspect of leadership that is now widely acknowledged, is not included in this list but was later described by the same theorist (Stogdill, 1981) as a function of a combination of cognitive, emotional, positional, and situational factors.

Management skills as leadership. Leadership as effective management appears to be the most common concept. Henri Fayol's

(*General and Industrial Management*, 1949) seven management functions, referred to by the acronym POSDCORB, are planning, organizing, staffing, directing, controlling, reporting and budgeting. A brief analysis of Fayol's fourteen principles are found in G. Edward Evans' *Management Techniques for Librarians* (1983), and in Robert D. Stueart and Barbara B. Moran's *Library Management* (1987).

Max Weber's (*The Theory of Social and Economic Organization*, 1947) concept of bureaucracy relied on the structure of the organization---the clear definition of each person's function and reporting relationships---and the leader, as the person at the top of the bureaucratic hierarchy, who has defined the tasks to be performed.

Leader behavior theories. Leader behavior and style theories concentrate on variations on the two-factor theory first developed by E. Fleishman, which appeared in an article published by the *Journal of Applied Psychology* entitled "The Measurement of Leadership Attitudes in Industry," (1953) and in the Ohio State University Leadership Studies (1955). Two-factor theories utilize two dimensions to describe how leaders vary in their attitudes and behaviors toward subordinates. The "Initiating Structure" dimension describes the degree to which a leader emphasizes task behavior, while the "Consideration" dimension describes the degree to which a leader emphasizes interpersonal concerns. The leader behavior theories reflect the earlier concern for the personality traits of the leader, but shift the emphasis to the attitudes and behavior of the leader toward subordinates.

The Ohio State Studies produced a number of widely used instruments for measuring leader behavior, subordinates' and others' perceptions of the leader's behavior, and leader attitudes. One of the most popular is represented by Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton's (1985) "Managerial Grid" which is used to give managers feedback about their attitudes and presumed behavior. However, no single leadership style is appropriate for all occasions.

Victor H. Vroom ("Leadership Revisited," 1977) and his associates have developed a decision tree for assessing which managerial style can be expected to work best in each situation. Other writers (R. J. House, "A Path-Goal Theory of Leader Effectiveness," 1971; R. W. Griffin, "Relationships Among Individual, Task Design, and Leader Behavior Variables," 1980) base effective contingent styles on task certainty, the technology of the work, demands of the outside environment, relative stability of the organization, and employees' social and personal needs.

Leadership as social influence. Many recent writers define leadership as a variety of social influence. The leader embodies certain personality traits, skills, competencies, and role behaviors that make it possible to exert influence on the attitudes and behaviors of subordinates. This definition builds on the other theories (traits, managerial skills, leadership style and behavior).

Hollander's (1960) studies led to the conclusion that the leader is strongly influenced by group norms and values. To the

extent that the leader is seen by the group as sharing social values and behaviors and being competent in work skills, the group will accept the leader. The leader in turn act as an agent of change, an innovator. The leader is both influenced by the group and able to influence it.

Jeffrey Pfeffer, in his research on "Management as Symbolic Action: The Creation and Maintenance of Organizational Paradigms" (1981), describes a different influence role for the leader. "Organizational paradigms" is the term he assigns the set of rationalizations in which the organization believes. The tools of the leader in his framework are language, symbol, ceremony, and settings. The outcomes are shared goals, values, perceptions, and understandings. In other words, the task of the leader is to give the organization meaning and purpose in the eyes of its members.

To D.C. McClelland, the imposition of structure and goals and the taking of responsibility for the organization's basic direction are the principal functions of leadership. He defines this as the socialized face of power, wherein the person is concerned to exercise power for others. McClelland and his colleagues ("The Effects of Power Training on Community Action Agencies," 1975) designed and tested "power motivation workshops" to assist community action workers to effect social change among the rural poor in Kentucky.

Marshall W. Meyer, in an article on "Leadership and Organizational Structure" (1975), argues that the function of leadership is to mediate between "environmental uncertainties and organizational structure." While Pfeffer (1981) describes

leadership turnover, or "executive succession," as one of the symbolic events that help to maintain organizational paradigms, Meyer argues that stable leadership results in stable organizations because the leader is better able to protect the organization from environmental demands and externally imposed change. Two elements contribute to stability: leadership continuity and autonomy, which is defined as relative independence from external environmental forces. Meyer's construct is based on his finding that more organizational changes occur during periods after new leaders take over than during periods without leadership turnover.

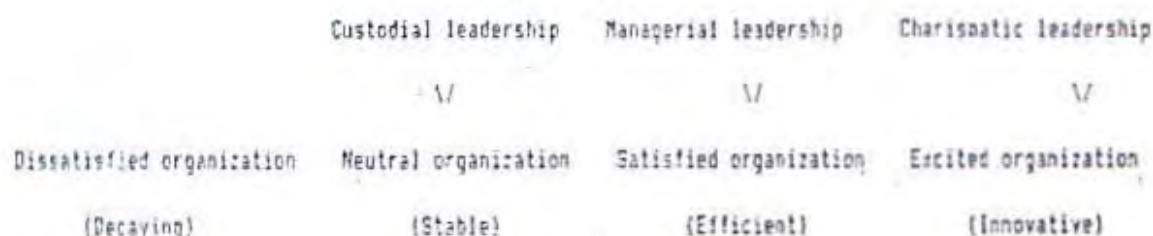
Gerald R. Salancik, in his study on "Leadership as an Outcome of Social Structure and Process" (1975), revealed that the influence which leaders exerted on their peers (the other top managers in the organization) was related to their positions in the social structure, professional status and activity, job prestige, job variety, and social similarity to other top managers.

Henry Mintzberg (1973) presents ten managerial roles based on his analysis of the actual work performed by five top executives and their actual behavior. These roles are further grouped into three categories, namely:

Interpersonal roles	Figurehead, Liaison, Supervisor
Informational roles	Monitor, Disseminator, Spokesperson
Decisional roles	Entrepreneur, Disturbance Handler or Trouble-shooter, Resource Allocator, Negotiator

Social influence is central to all of the interpersonal roles. Also, the informational and decisional roles include activities that contribute to the leader's repertoire of techniques for influencing both subordinates and the external environments.

D.E. Berlew, in his research on "Leadership and Organizational Excitement" (1977), extends the framework for leadership behavior and effects on the organization by positing three levels of leadership, which in turn move the organization through four stages, as illustrated below:



R.J. House, in turn, builds on Berlew's framework to develop his theory of "charismatic leadership," which is based on a set of individual characteristics that are reminiscent of those articulated by Weber, Stogdill, and others: dominance, self-confidence, need for influence, and the belief in one's own values ("A 1976 Theory of Charismatic Leadership," 1977). In addition, specific leader behaviors lead the followers to respond: goal articulation, role modelling of the value system, personal image building, and communication of high performance expectations and confidence in followers.

A significant number of books have appeared in recent years that have either a more popular or a more philosophical bent than the studies described so far. What these books have in common is their emphasis on the social need for leaders who lead---those

who inspire others to action. Such books as *In Search of Excellence* by Thomas J. Peters and Robert H. Waterman (1982), *Corporate Cultures* by Terence E. Deal and Allen A. Kennedy (1982), and *Reinventing the Corporation* by John Naisbitt and Patricia Aburdence (1985) express clearly what the authors see as the role of the leader in the organization and what the expected outcomes are.

James McGregor Burns, in *Leadership* (1978), developed a complete philosophy of leadership, culminating in his theory of "transforming leadership" in which the leader "looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower." Michael Maccoby, in *The Leader* (1981), points out that old beliefs about leadership and authority are no longer valid in the new self-oriented society. "The work ethic is not dead, but it has not been articulated for this age," according to Maccoby. This articulation is the task of organizational leaders.

In *Leaders: The Strategies for Taking Charge* (1985), Warren G. Bennis and Burt Nanus (1985) further developed the theme of transforming leadership, focusing on four specific behavioral strategies required of the transforming leader: (1) having a clear vision for the organization, (2) communicating it so that it defines reality for the group, (3) developing trust among followers by choosing a direction and persevering with it, and (4) self-respect and self-knowledge, which engender self-confidence in others.

Leadership studies in librarianship. Applications of leadership theory to the study of academic librarianship have been largely limited to use of variations on the Ohio State University two-factor theories.

R. Sparks, in his study on "Library Management: Consideration and Structure" (1976), reported an application of a version of Fleishman's questionnaire to the library department of a state university. Both the leader and the eleven subordinates were surveyed. The leader's scores on the "consideration" and "structure" scales were used to provide feedback to the leader regarding employee attitudes, beliefs and feelings about his leadership.

In a monographic article entitled "Leader Behavior in Changing Libraries" (1982), A.C. Dragon describes how he administered the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, one of a series of instruments developed by the Ohio State University group to measure leader behavior and attitudes, to 28 subordinate groups totalling 166 individuals in three large public libraries. Subordinates in this study described their supervisors as being higher on the structure dimension than on the consideration dimension. In comparison to supervisors from other occupations, library supervisors were described as being as high or higher on initiating structure but lower than most in consideration. Professional and nonprofessional subordinates described consideration behavior similarly, but nonprofessionals described their supervisors considerably higher in initiating structure. The data were also analyzed by the sex of the supervisor, but no significant differences were found for either dimension.

Richard C. Holmes, in his doctoral dissertation on "The Academic Library Director's Perceived Power and Its Correlates" (1983), studied the library directors of a random sample of liberal arts colleges and comprehensive universities to measure perceptions of the directors' overall power in library decision-making. Immediate superiors' and subordinates' perceptions were related to leadership style, role clarity, influence of outside groups on library decision-making, and the directors' power bases. Perceptions of the directors' power over objective and policy-setting decisions were found to contribute most strongly to perceptions of overall power, and "expertise" on the part of the director was found to contribute significantly to the directors' power, as perceived by both superiors and subordinates.

RELATED LITERATURE ON THE STUDY OF LEADERSHIP AND THE IMPACT OF EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT ON THE ORGANIZATION

Background study. Chester I. Barnard's (*The Functions of the Executive*, 1938) theory of equilibrium emphasized the role of the executive as inducing workers to contribute their energies and talents to the organization in exchange for monetary and other rewards, but he failed to consider the effects of other conditions in the environment.

The organization as a system of inputs, processes, and outputs was adapted from theories of physical phenomena. Daniel Katz and Robert L. Kahn (*The Social Psychology of Organizations*, 1966, 1978) presented the most fully developed exposition of what

came to be known as the open systems theory, which suggests that the organization can adapt to changes in the environment in two ways: (1) it can utilize a number of strategies to attain control over external forces and thus maintain predictability, or (2) it can develop internal modifications of the organization to meet the needs of the environment.

James D. Thompson (*Organizations in Action*, 1967) developed what is widely considered as a definitive work on open systems theories. He distinguished between (1) the environment as "everything else" and (2) the relevant "task environment", a concept first articulated by William R. Dill ("Environment as an Influence on Managerial Autonomy," 1958). Thompson argued that each organization must stake out for itself a territory, or domain, in terms of its product, or services, its methods of delivery, and the population served. The task environment consists of the customers, suppliers, competitors, and regulatory groups directly related to the organization's domain:

Libraries and their interactions with the environment. In his doctoral thesis on "Strategic Simulation of a Library/User/Funder System" (1968), Richard E. Nance developed a model of user needs and fund allocations. However, he dealt only with the in-library decision to make expenditures in a specific area, based on user demand, and did not consider the external decision to allocate to the library.

Beverly P. Lynch's review of studies of academic libraries in their environments ("The Academic Library and Its Environment," 1974) described only studies that dealt with

internal responses to environmental pressures and in particular organizational changes as responses.

Snunith Shoham (*Organizational Adaptation*, by *Public Libraries*, 1984) 'studied the adaptive responses of public libraries to reduced resources and to changes in the populations served. She concluded that, in regard to population changes, the libraries chose to adapt to the changing demand. Where the loss of financial resources was concerned, efforts were made first to restore funding, and, when that failed, internal adjustment took place.

Helen A. Howard ("Organizational Structure and Innovation in Academic Libraries," 1981) studied the adoption of innovations in four academic libraries and came out with a relatively high rate, but failed to correlate it positively with organizational size.

The Leader in the two-environment model. Mintzberg (1973) segregates the leader "as supervisor" role from the other interpersonal roles and treats them separately. Leadership is exercised downward, toward subordinates, and the liaison function deals with relationships with outside organizations and individuals. Within the more common use of the term leadership, the two functions are combined, and it is in this sense that the function of the leader is used in this discussion.

L.R. Sayles (*Managerial Behavior: Administration in Complex Organizations*, 1964) reinforces this definition by essentially describing the leader as a middle manager by virtue of the interface function between the subordinate unit and its environment or larger organization.

Katz and Kahn (1978) similarly discuss the two-way orientation of the leader, while A.K. Rice (*The Enterprise and Its Environment*, 1963) describes leadership as a boundary between the internal and external environments.

Pfeffer and Salancik ("Administrator Effectiveness: The Effects of Advocacy and Information on Achieving Outcome in an Organizational Context," 1977) emphasize the importance of the outward-facing role of the leader, pointing out that if one were to assume that effective performance bears its own reward, then internal management is of critical importance, but that if one accepts the point of view that organizations are coalitions of interests contending for relative advantage, then the "representational" and negotiating roles become the more significant. A principal role of the leader is to influence how the control environment (e.g. the parent organization) values it and consequently allocates resources and roles to it.

RELATED RESEARCHES: ORGANIZATIONAL AND LEADER EFFECTIVENESS

Anne S. Tsui, in her doctoral study of 330 corporate managers in 1981 ("A Multiple Constituency Approach to Managerial Effectiveness: A Theoretical Framework and an Exploratory Study"), argued that being perceived by one's constituencies as effective is a valid and reliable indicator of good management.

Pfeffer (1981) also argues that the primary task of management is to provide explanations, rationalizations and legitimation that make sense out of and thereby explain the organiza-

tion's activities. His position is that management effects are primarily expressive and or symbolic, and thus effectiveness cannot be measured directly by outputs, since the primary influence is on beliefs, attitudes and commitments.

Hal Pickle and Frank Friedlander ("Seven Societal Criteria of Organizational Success," 1968), earlier, extended their model of organizational effectiveness to encompass management actions: They described organizational outcomes as a function of management behavior, which in turn, is determined in part by management ability and personality. In testing their sample of managers, they found high correlations of critical thinking ability and verbal comprehension with the levels of satisfaction of the seven parties-at-interest.

Tsui collaborated with Kirk R. Karwan in an unpublished paper entitled "Managerial Effectiveness and Organizational Performance: A Test of Causality" (1984), which further extended Pfeffer's line of thought in an experimental simulation designed to test two opposing hypotheses, namely: (1) that managerial effectiveness on the part of the "executive leader," as assessed by a team of external raters, will lead to favorable organizational performance, and (2) that, conversely, favorable organizational performance will lead to favorable evaluation of the executive leader's managerial effectiveness. In this case, favorable organizational effectiveness was defined as substantive outcomes, such as financial success. Tsui and Karwan found that time-lagged correlations supported the second hypothesis and did not support the first, which indicates that positive organizational outcomes precede positive evaluations of the

leader. Drawing on the work of Pfeffer (1977, 1981) and M.M. Lombardo and M.W. McCall ("Leaders on the Line: Observations from a Simulation of Managerial Work," 1982), Tsui and Karwan pointed out, however, that symbolic outcomes, such as creation and maintenance of shared goals and meanings, may eventually affect the substantive outcomes of the organization, since their results also showed strong correlations between substantive and symbolic outcomes.

This shift in focus from measurements of productivity to emphasis on the meaning-creating roles of leaders is also supported by David Whetten, who points out in his studies of effective leaders ("Managing for Effectiveness During Times of Scarcity," 1984), that he chose to look for "generalizations of distinctiveness," rather than seeking indicators of any specific definition of effectiveness.

Developing an administrative style. Administrative styles in librarianship have historically echoed external developments. Because colleges and universities are uniquely dissimilar in their administrative affairs, they generate highly situational administrative styles. John R. Rizzo (*Management for Librarians: Fundamentals and Issues*, 1980) and G. Edward Evans (*Management Techniques for Librarians*, 1983) covered different aspects of management styles and techniques.

Maurice Marchant (*Participative Management in Academic Libraries*, 1977) and Donald J. Sager (*Participatory Management in Libraries*, 1982) wrote on participative management in libraries, although both admit that the traditional approach,

authoritarian-paternalistic style, is still quite common. According to Marchant, the normal management style in today's American university libraries is authoritarian, which is characterized by a director who makes decisions and occasionally allows staff reaction before formalizing them. Paternalism tends to be found where there has been little turnover in leadership.

Several features of Japanese management have been found useful in an academic library. The main one, fostering cooperation instead of the adversarial labor-management relationship, basically reflects the collegial style that already functions in well-managed academic libraries. Other features include the formation of small work groups, and the provision of incentives for staff development. Jon Alston (*The American Samurai: Blending American and Japanese Management Practice*, 1986) and Hideo Ishida ("Transferability of Japanese Resource Management Abroad," 1986) advocate the blending of American and Japanese management practices.

Theodore F. Welch (*Toshokan: Libraries in Japanese Society*, 1976), however, cautions against importing the Japanese style in library management. To him, Japanese management style has done little to enhance the relatively low status of librarians, despite decades of American-Japanese exchanges of ideas on librarianship.

To Thomas Begley and David Boyd ("Psychological Characteristics Associated with Performance in Entrepreneurial Firms and Smaller Businesses," 1987), successful managers possess many of the same qualities as successful entrepreneurs: (1) a

high need for achievement, (2) a strong locus of control or belief in the power of one's own influence, (3) willingness to take risks, and (4) a capacity to see ambiguity as opportunity rather than a threat. They do not mind unstructured or semi-structured situations. Success in administration demands from them flexibility,, openness to new ideas, decisiveness in action, capacity to tolerate uncertainty, loyalty to the institution, and above all, a caring attitude toward human beings.

CONCLUSION

Like the airlines, librarianship has entered an era of deregulation. The academic library is no longer the key academic information center. Computer technology has changed the external environment. For librarians to use new technology only to maintain the important role of the library in the academic community, strong leadership is required, and leadership can be developed only by reaching beyond librarianship as it is known today.

The focus of modern libraries has been on warehouse functions (collections, buildings, facilities), on policies and procedures (lending regulations, cataloging rules, authority files), and on transaction systems (circulation, networks, database creation and maintenance). However, a transformed academic librarianship must focus not only on these hardwares and softwares, if it is to restore and regain its preeminence in intellectual pursuits. It must continually focus on people. The academic library will always be people serving people. To

and goals, its leaders must be fully empowered individuals, proactive professionals, knowledgeable in management science, and experts in administration.

Administration is creative and exciting because it deals with the most variable and mercurial of all academic resources---human beings. The human behavior is highly variable and adaptive. The richness, variability, and unpredictability of human behavior, added to the rapid, worldwide economic, social and technological challenges will stimulate the library leaders of today to lead our libraries into the unknowns of the twenty-first century.

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